The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Vol. 11

APRIL 1938

No. 8

EDITORIAL

The need for coöperation and coördination between the school and the community has long been the concern of educators. The schools have looked toward a better working relationship with the home and the community agencies in order that they might be able to carry out their programs more effectively, and the parents have looked to the school for help in the matter of discipline and training. Just so, the community service organizations have looked to the home and the school for certain definite services to help in their work.

As far back as 1919, Cubberley' discussed this phase of educational responsibility. He said:

Viewed from the angle of child needs and child welfare the school became a new institution. Knowledge now came to be conceived as life experience and inner conviction, and not as the memorization of the accumulated learning of the past; as a tool to do something with, not as a finished product in itself. It came to be seen that facts possess but little real importance until they have been put to use. Child welfare and social welfare were perceived to be closely intertwined. To train children for and to introduce them into membership in the little community of

Copyright 1938 by The Journal of Educational Sociology, Incorporated.

¹Ellwood P. Cubberley, State School Administration (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927), p. 268.

which they form a part, and from this to extend their sense of membership outward to the life of the State, Nation, and to world civilization; to awaken guiding moral impulses; to fill them with the spirit of service; and to train them for effective self-direction—these became the great tasks of the modern school.

Education within the school, no matter how inclusive the curriculum or how many new types of service are added, remains but a small part of the real education of the child. We cannot think of him in a school as unrelated to his home group and his community. With the best that modern education can provide, the school may remain nonfunctional or less effective than it might be unless home, school, and community get together.

The child has had four, five, and sometimes six years of education before he comes under the influence of the school. Moreover, the influence of other contacts do not cease when the child begins to attend school. These contacts may be the reason why the school often appears to be ineffectual in its dealings with its pupils. Many schools continue, year after year, to labor with the child for a few hours each day, and pay little or no attention to the fact that he returns after school hours to an environment in which the germs of discontent, delinquency, and maladjustment are only too often prevalent.

It should be clear, therefore, that while the community has transferred its responsibilities to the school, the school must, on the other hand, look to the community for coöperation in carrying out the program of education. This joint responsibility is imperative if we are to turn out happy, efficient, and successful adults. Without these school-community relationships the school is headed for disappointment, disillusionment, and failure. It is with these points in mind that this issue of The Journal of Educational Sociology is presenting highlights on national, county, and local programs which may help both school and community in their endeavor to assist the child to prepare for his future relationships.

RHEA K. BOARDMAN

COÖPERATION AMONG NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN THE FIELDS OF EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WELFARE

M. M. CHAMBERS

American Council on Education

A preliminary survey of national associations whose activities relate to some phase of the care and education of American youth reveals that there are no fewer than five hundred organizations which must be comprehended within such a definition. Among these are national associations promoting public health, recreation, and education, as well as general social-service groups and organizations interested in special classes, such as the physically handicapped, dependent children, and the delinquent and criminal. Other types included are the general character-building organizations for youth; the Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish religious youth groups; and national student associations. Organizations for research and social planning, as well as those especially devoted to Negro and interracial problems, those representing agriculture and rural life, and the national women's clubs and service clubs also appear. Various patriotic, political, fraternal, labor, and peace organizations likewise are included.

Leaders in all of these areas of service are agreed that a major need is for better articulation of the activities of the many and diverse national organizations. One means by which progress may be made is through the efforts of national coöperative councils representing the several national associations in a given field, such as those of education, public health, recreation, public welfare, and religion. There are already in existence nearly a score of such coöperative councils. To sketch briefly their purposes, activities, and limitations is the purpose of this article.

¹ Youth-Serving Organizations: National Non-Governmental Associations (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1937), 327 pages.

RESEARCH COUNCILS

The war period was productive of efforts toward national coördination in the fields of research, education, and social service. Its earliest fruit was the National Research Council, consisting of appointed representatives of 83 national scientific and technical societies, and additional membership-at-large now aggregating about 240 persons. It was first set up in 1916, and has its purpose stated in an executive order of President Wilson dated May 11, 1918. Its object is to promote research and the application thereof in the mathematical, physical, and biological sciences and the arts derived from them, for the purpose "of increasing knowledge, of strengthening the national defense, and of contributing in other ways to the public welfare." It functions through a large number of committees and obtains support from various philanthropic sources. It occupies a building in Washington which was given to the National Academy of Sciences for the purpose by Carnegie Corporation of New York. From the same source it received a productive endowment now amounting to about \$3,500,000. Its operating budget for the latest fiscal year was in excess of \$500,000.

The Social Science Research Council, dating from 1923, consists of three representatives from each of the seven principal national organizations of social scientists and nine members-at-large chosen in rotating order from other fields of scientific and scholarly inquiry. It likewise obtains its support chiefly from philanthropic foundations. Its budget for the latest reported year exceeded \$450,000. Each of these great research councils awards a considerable number of postdoctoral and other fellowships from year to year, and finances a wide variety of researches and publications within its field.

EDUCATIONAL GROUPINGS

Another product of the war period was the American Council on Education, created in 1918, and now consisting of some thirty national educational associations as constituent members and an equal number of national organizations in fields related to education as associate members, in addition to some 360 colleges and universities as institutional members. Furthermore, it has recently opened its membership to State departments of public instruction and to public-school systems in cities of over 200,000 population. In its earlier years its purview was largely limited to higher education, but its purpose is now "to advance American education in any or all of its phases through comprehensive voluntary coöperative action on the part of educational associations, organizations, and institutions." It collects membership fees of moderate size from its various members, but its researches, experiments, and conferences are financed largely by philanthropic sources. From time to time it sets up research projects of considerable magnitude to be executed by its standing committees or by temporary commissions. Chief among these at the present time is the American Youth Commission, consisting of seventeen nationally prominent persons authorized to conduct a comprehensive study of the care and education of American youth during the period 1935-1940, and financed by grants from the General Education Board.

The National Education Association of the United States is not, strictly speaking, a coöperative council of national societies, but it could hardly be omitted from a discussion of this type, due to the fact that it now consists of no less than twenty-four semiautonomous departments, several of which are in themselves national associations of considerable size and importance and with a long history. The Association itself dates from 1857. In addition to the regular work of its division of research and other service divisions, it is currently sponsoring in conjunction with its Department of Superintendence (American Association of School Administrators) a five-year research project conducted by the Educational Policies Commission, a group of twenty leading educators heading a study of problems of educational statesmanship, with the aid of philanthropic support.

In the field of education there are other cooperative national councils of more recent origin. The National Council of Parent Education was founded in 1926. It consists of twelve national organizations so varied in nature that they must be named. They include the American Association of University Women, the American Home Economics Association, the Catholic Conference on Family Life, the Federal Council of Churches, the International Council of Religious Education, the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. The remaining five are bureaus of the United States Government, being the Office of Education, the Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Home Economics, and the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture, and the Education Division of the WPA. In addition, the Council has affiliated with it numerous bureaus and departments of State and municipal governments and of colleges and universities, as well as some six hundred individual members.

The educational possibilities of radio have brought into existence several national groupings of interested associations. The annual National Conference on Educational Broadcasting was first held in 1936, to provide a national forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences, and to bring to a large and influential audience the findings that may become available from studies and researches in educational broadcasting. Approximately one hundred organizations sent official representatives to the second conference in 1937, which was sponsored by twenty-seven coöperating associations, among which were the National Committee on Education by Radio, which dates from 1930, and the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, established in the same year.

IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK

National coördination among social-service organizations received a great impetus during the war period. Community Chests and Councils, Incorporated, an organization to aid the fund-raising and other activities of local community chests and to stimulate community planning for social welfare, which annually administers the Mobilization for Human Needs on behalf of thirty-five national social-welfare organizations, was organized in 1918. Another agency of coöperation in the same field is the National Social Work Council, set up in 1920, and now composed of twenty-five constituent organizations. It conducts monthly meetings of representatives of these organizations, and gives consultative service regarding their problems and plans, with emphasis on the problem of support for social-work programs.

The oldest nucleus in the social-service field is the National Conference of Social Work, which held its first annual meeting in 1870. Its membership consists of some seven thousand individuals and about four hundred local institutions of various types. It is not a formal council of national agencies but, nevertheless, serves many of the purposes of such an organization, in view of the fact that a large number of national associations in social service and related fields habitually hold their annual meetings in conjunction with the annual Conference, and many of their representatives have places on the programs of one or more of the five permanent sections and the four standing committees of the Conference itself.

A relative newcomer among coöperative councils is the National Council for the Physically Handicapped, established in 1933. It is a clearing house for eight national associations concerned with persons having physical impairments, including the deaf and hard of hearing, the blind, and the tuberculous, as well as other societies interested in the rehabilitation of persons who have been crippled or otherwise disabled.

PUBLIC HEALTH

In the field of public health, the National Health Council, dating from 1921, is an active and effective agency of coöperation, representing some sixteen national health organizations, including two bureaus of the United States Government—the Public Health Service and the Children's Bureau. The nongovernmental members include the American Public Health Association, the American National Red Cross, the National Tuberculosis Association, and a dozen other national societies in the health field. Many of these organizations have their headquarters in New York City in the same building where the Council maintains many common services for them all, such as the joint housing plan, a common library, joint arrangements for shipping, bookkeeping, purchasing, and certain clerical and communication services. It also heads up occasional joint enterprises such as campaigns against specific diseases, projects designed to promote health service for Negroes, and a national health congress.

GUIDANCE

Organizations in the field of guidance, personnel work, and placement have the most recently established national coöperative council in the American Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, set up in 1934. Its constituency is composed of ten national and two regional organizations whose interests are wholly or in part in the guidance and personnel field.

RECREATION

Another organization of considerable interest is the National Education-Recreation Council, which acts as a bridge between two areas that are largely inseparable but too often regarded as mutually exclusive. It conducts periodic luncheon meetings in New York City for representatives of nineteen national organizations representing educational, recreational, character-building, and social-work interests, including also two whose activities are confined to the improvement of rural life.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Many of the national councils now in existence date their origin within the past twenty years. Among the Protestant religious groups, however, three of the councils now functioning are somewhat older. The Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America dates from 1905. It represents twenty-three constituent Protestant churches. The Council of Church Boards of Education has existed since 1911. It is composed of representatives of the educational departments of twenty-three Protestant churches, and of additional delegates from church-related colleges, from the American Association of Theological Schools, and from the International Council of Religious Education.

This last organization was created in 1912. It is an agency representing forty coöperating Protestant denominations in the United States and Canada, as well as a large number of State, provincial, and other local councils. Its purpose is stated as being "to promote Christian religious education, and the development of Christian individuals and a Christian social order." It is thus more general than that of the Council of Church Boards of Education, which is quite largely concerned with religious education and development in institutions of higher education, both denominational colleges and State universities. Either of these organizations is much more specialized than the Federal Council of Churches, the aim of which is to promote coöperation and increase efficiency among its constituency in every department of their operations.

A more recently created agency of interdenominational coöperation, concerned wholly with young persons, is the Joint Committee on United Youth Program, which has as its nucleus representatives of four standing committees of the International Council of Religious Education and delegates from the Federal Council of Churches and the Council of Church Boards of Education. In addition, it has representatives of the Y.M.C.A. National Council, the Y.W.C.A. National Board, the International Society of Christian Endeavor, the National Council of Methodist Youth, and other Protestant youth groups. Besides sponsoring publications under the general designation of "Christian Youth Building a New World," this committee also promotes a large number of assemblages of Protestant youth through its subcommittee known as the National Committee on Regional Youth Conferences.

INTERCOUNCIL TIES

One feature of the national picture not hitherto made plain is the fact that in several instances a national council in a given area of human service holds membership in a similar organization in the same or another field. Thus to some extent there are already established avenues of coöperation among the several fields at the apex of their organization. A few examples will illustrate. The National Education Association is a constituent member of the American Council on Education, and both are represented on the National Committee on Education by Radio. The Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America and the International Council of Religious Education are both represented in the National Council of Parent Education and the National Research Council are associate members of the American Council on Education.

The story of the ways in which the several cooperative councils have succeeded in coordinating the efforts of their constituent associations, and of what may yet be undertaken in that respect, would be a long and significant one. They have already done much to bring a semblance of unity to the vast congeries of private associations which characterizes the American scene, and more far-reaching achievements may be confidently hoped for as we progress toward higher forms of social organizations for the public good.

MEANING FOR THE SCHOOLS

Pupils in public and private schools throughout the land ought not to be kept in ignorance of the aims and activities of the hundreds of nonprofit organizations that seek to contribute to the welfare of youth through many channels. Some knowledge of what these agencies seek to accomplish and what they have to offer is essential to an understanding of our complex social scene. It is true that not every purveyor of propaganda can wisely be welcomed in the classroom, but it is no less true that some of the best impartial literature of our time on education, health, recreation, vocational guidance, and other problems of youth is issued by nongovernmental national associations led by scholarly and public-spirited men and women.

The best of these publications should have a place in the school library, and teachers will find many opportunities to enrich their equipment for the service of youth if they keep informed of the purposes and achievements of the national associations and councils in the educational and social-welfare fields. On both sides there is unquestionably much good will and willingness to coöperate for the benefit of children and youth.

UNEMPLOYED YOUTH AND THE SCHOOL, THE SOCIAL AGENCY, AND THE STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

ROSWELL WARD

Division of Guidance and Placement, National Youth Administration'

A study of the relation of unemployed youth to the school and to the social agency requires some explanation of the emergence of the State employment service as a community agency and also requires a brief "preview" of several different problems. What are the problems of unemployed youth, and what has caused these problems? To what extent do youth require service different from that given to any other unemployed groups? What are the problems of the school in relation to unemployed youth? What can be done by the private social agency? What can be done by the State employment service of the various States, and why is the public employment service concerned? In the necessarily brief discussion of all of these questions certain relevant contributions of the Federal Government will appear, although this is by no means an article on governmental programs. It will also be evident that the attitude of organized labor, of employers, and of parents, the general public, and the church must also be considered.

THE PROBLEMS OF UNEMPLOYED YOUTH

The so-called youth group, usually defined as the group between sixteen and twenty-five years of age, shares with all other age groups the common problem of unemployment, together with its related problems of decreased purchasing power, increased temptation to delinquency, impaired morale, poor health conditions, and exposure to substandard living conditions.

In addition to these problems common to all age groups, youth

¹ The viewpoints expressed herein represent only the author's personal views and are in no sense an official statement.

has some problems of its own. Some of these are: delayed or abandoned plans for further education; laws that may discourage hiring of youth; delayed marriage with its accompanying emotional problems; a somewhat higher delinquency rate than for other age groups; and, above all, increased difficulty in making individual judgments on personal problems of vocational selection, training, and employment; in other words, a general lack of any realistic community planning to adjust the "youth supply" to the "occupational demand" and to give young people and their parents general access to such information, keyed to the needs of the general public.

n1

ıd

of

e-

ne

b-

at

of

le

1-

7-

of

7-

n

The causes of these special problems of unemployed youth are traceable to the same sources as those of the general unemployment situation, to which can be added several factors that affect youth more than other groups.

It is not generally understood that to some extent youth received the impact of the depression indirectly, through the lowering of parental incomes. There has always been widespread unemployment of youth, in good times and in bad, but in most instances the parents were able to assist their youth until the youth became "settled." This for years has been one of the traditional functions of parents and one which they usually accepted as a matter of course until parental incomes began to slump.

It is this traditional American parental acceptance of the financial support of youth who were finding their place, by trial-and-error methods, that has tended to make the problem of unemployed out-of-school youth appear to be a new national problem rather than an old problem which has greatly increased in magnitude. This may also explain why it did not receive the complete study which it should have received many years ago, even though it existed then on a smaller scale.

In addition to removing the "parental economic shock absorber," the depression also cut off many of the usual avenues for youth employment: labor unions limited employment of apprentices; employers gave up training programs for young workers; impaired school budgets cut down school resources; scholarship funds were decreased—youth got it "coming and going." Neither parents nor schools nor private employment could carry them; and to cap the climax, many radical changes took place in industry—making it much more dangerous to depend on the usual sources of occupational information in developing personal working plans.

It is bad enough to have the economic machine begin to slow down just when one wants to find his place in it, but it is immeasurably more difficult when that machine gradually gets vastly more complicated at the same time! This difficulty in obtaining accurate information in regard to employers' needs and employment opportunities and standards has been felt not only by individual youth but also by schools and other agencies who need such information in order properly to advise young people or to develop training programs that will meet known community occupational needs, and it is this difficulty that underlies, to a considerable extent, the absence of realistic "youth planning" referred to above.

It is true that there has rarely been any marked tendency on the part of the schools to study objectively the occupational opportunities in their community and to use this data as a basis for guidance and curriculum building. This is not entirely due to academic conservatism, but rather to the fact that such information is difficult to obtain and is subject to gradual change as the technology of industry changes, and also to the fact that such planning is not altogether a school problem but rather a community problem.

We may, therefore, place major responsibility for the predicament of unemployed youth on three special causative factors, two of which are related to the general economic situation and the other traceable to technical trends.

1. The decline of the parent as the traditional relief agency for unemployed youth

2. The limiting of employment of young people as an age group

3. The lack of information on occupational opportunities and community needs, as a general guide to ensure the employability of youth for those jobs that exist and as a safeguard against training for overcrowded occupations

TO WHAT EXTENT DO UNEMPLOYED YOUTH REQUIRE SPECIAL RESOURCES?

le

W

e

e

n

e

Since youth has some special problems superimposed upon our general economic maladjustment, it follows logically that youth requires some special aid in addition to the general assistance given to all unemployed groups. It is also evident that youth requires special attention in any reorganization of the economic and social machine that may be undertaken to level out future rapid fluctuations between prosperity and poverty and to reduce the grave economic inequalities which exist in our population.

The development of these special resources, it should again be emphasized, is not just an emergency problem. The problem existed, to a limited degree, long before 1929. We were patient with it because the youth group and their parents were patient, and because we were not fully aware that the traditional information on employment opportunities was inadequate. After the emergency is forgotten, the problem of proper orientation of hordes of unemployed youth will not disappear. It is with us to stay. It is not likely that parents will ever assume, or could ever assume, the burden again. Neither their budgets nor their ability to advise young people in regard to occupational opportunities will stand the strain in the future.

How these special resources are or can be developed will be evident in the following pages. While many people feel that it is self-evident that youth requires new and special resources to meet problems that have long existed but are now increased in scope, it is also evident that there are groups which do not accept this view. They say that special service for youth is "coddling." This criticism is justified to the extent that many youth agencies, schools, and par-

ents have produced a delayed immaturity in large youth groups by the use of oversentimental methods.

Special resources for assisting unemployed youth are needed and such resources must impart a greater realism and objectivity to youth programs as they are developed and reoriented in our schools, social agencies, and employment services.

THE PROBLEM OF THE SCHOOL AND UNEMPLOYED YOUTH

Readers may look in vain, in the section devoted to causes of the special youth problems, for the often repeated charge that the schools are responsible for much youth unemployment because of an overemphasis on academic training and corresponding neglect of training for the skilled and semiskilled vocations. Lack of proper training undoubtedly has caused much unemployment. Youth were not trained to fill jobs that existed. The schools are now facing a demand for training and retraining of unemployed youth, and must inevitably adopt proper safeguards against a continuance of unemployment of youth to the extent to which such unemployment can be corrected by more realistic training programs. While every dictate of common sense indicates an extension of vocational education, it must be recognized that this involves some rather difficult problems not entirely under school control.

There is at present a serious shortage of skilled labor in all trades. There is also a shortage of some types of semiskilled workers in many communities, and there is so little attention given to the problem of the semiskilled that many people do not even know what the term means. (It means work where only a limited degree of skill, judgment, and ability to work without detailed, constant supervision is required.) The demand for semiskilled workers in industry is increasing. As one authority has said, "The schools have been pointing up, industry is pointing down." Industry probably needs no smaller number of skilled workers, but it now uses hordes of semiskilled in factories where thirty years ago only skilled labor predominated.

To say that lack of sufficient vocational schools is an isolated and predominating cause of youth unemployment is an oversimplification which is dangerously attractive to some observers. The cause lies deeper than that and has been indicated in reference to the widespread neglect of the problem of unemployed youth prior to 1929, and in indicating the general lack of adequate information regarding actual present and future employment trends, opportunities, and requirements.

The school must take a major share of the blame for this, but industry itself, organized labor, and, above all, the parents of youth and the general public must also be held responsible. The problem cuts deep into our traditions of democracy and unrestricted opportunity.

Suppose we should cut down academic education to permit more money for vocational schools and to correlate more closely with the oft-quoted figures that show only a small proportion of our academic high-school youth going on to college: what will be the result? We know that more youth could be made employable for the jobs that they are inexorably destined to fill. But in this process of limiting admittance to academic schools, as would be necessary, and throwing open more vocational schools, will youth sacrifice its deeply founded urge to higher education, even though it is often a cruel fantasy? Will parents agree to what in the last analysis will be the creation of scholastic class distinctions? Will organized labor, employers, and church groups make the adjustments needed to correlate with greater emphasis on vocational education and less emphasis on academic training? Can they be educated to see that lack of proper school adjustment of youth is a cruel form of illusionary democracy?

The proponents of a desperately needed program of enlarged vocational training sometimes do not realize that in the background is the financially necessary corollary of a limitation on entrance to academic high schools. Are they certain that our skills in individual judgment of student achievements are adequate for us to face

the responsibility of assuming an authoritative role, far beyond that yet exerted in our schools, and flatly tell many students that their chances for success are better in vocational schools?

The maintenance of our democratic checks and balances is as important as the maintenance of our economic well-being. A democracy is content to be inefficient because up to a certain point it would rather have individual liberty of action than efficiency. Liberty and democracy are not just catchwords. They have been nowhere more evident that in the hit-and-miss development of schools which do not train for the preponderance of jobs that exist; which give no adequate picture of social realities; and which release students ignorant of many of the grave responsibilities of their future life, particularly marriage, the problems of the consumer, and the real problems of the voter.

Therefore, just to arraign the schools and say that they had been too preoccupied with cultural objectives and with expansion to meet the tremendous demand for more high-school and college education is not enough. The leaders in education are slowly becoming aware of these things. The critics on the outside will do better to back up their efforts to reform themselves by preparing youth and public opinion to accept those reforms voluntarily and with complete understanding rather than as an apparent coercive effort to limit academic opportunity.

The Federal Government has been on both sides of this question. It has assisted our predominantly academic high schools and colleges through the NYA High School and College Aid Program. Probably some students who would be benefited more by non-academic training are nevertheless getting academic training by Government subsidy. Government agencies have assisted in construction of both academic and vocational high schools. The Smith-Hughes Act, the impending George-Dean subsidies, the emphasis of the CCC and the NYA Works Programs on skilled and semi-skilled occupations are all resources that are needed and that at

present only the Federal Government has had the taxing or borrowing power to finance.

t

r

IS

nt y.

n of

t; se

ir

er,

en

et

ng

to

nd m-

to

on.

m.

onby

on-

th-

asis

mit at Another governmental activity is the guidance program of the NYA which is supervised by Dr. Mary H. S. Hayes. It is highly decentralized, but it is focused on the need for more emphasis on skilled and semiskilled occupations. It has educated many youth away from "white-collar delusions" and has also influenced their parents, their former teachers, and the general public. The basis of this work can be defined in three words: accurate occupational information. We have given some youth, and will give more of them, reliable information on which they can base their own decisions. In this and related work we have come close to developing new and realistic skills and standards for guidance of out-of-school youth.

The NYA Passamoquoddy "Work Experience Project," operated under a committee representing education, organized labor, and industry under the chairmanship of Colonel Henry Waite, points the way to realistic voluntary choice of trade training and to an actual tryout under working conditions on which counselors can safely base judgments and suggestions. It is quite possible that we do not yet realize what a tremendous influence this project may have on educational and guidance methods.

Hence the relationship of schools to unemployed youth is very largely a problem of curriculum reorganization, based on the recognition of actual vocational needs and other reforms (particularly a recognition of the greatly increasing responsibilities and resources of the State employment services), to ensure that no youth can in future say: "I did not get a job because the school let me down." It will be seen further along in this article how coöperation with social agencies and State employment services can assist in this work, but it must be emphasized that the school alone cannot, by increasing vocational training, achieve greater realism in other ways without informed community support and understanding.

THE RELATION OF THE SOCIAL AGENCY TO UNEMPLOYED YOUTH

The term "social agency" is taken to mean private social agencies. Unemployed youth have created many grave problems for them. It has made it much more difficult to consider the family as a social unit, the basis of the traditional casework approach. The youth of the family often have economic, educational, occupational, and morale problems of a highly specialized nature.

Some private social agencies have ventured into vocational-guidance programs, often handicapped by the difficulty of obtaining qualified social workers who have the realistic knowledge of occupations required to carry on guidance for out-of-school youth. Many private social agencies and many youth agencies, especially those called "character-building agencies," have undertaken to do junior placement, retraining, "refresher" training, and, in some cases, basic vocational training.

In some communities private social agencies are doing work that could more effectively be done by the schools or by the State employment service, if funds were made available to them. Human nature being what it is, no community chest or agency directorate has ever had its staff suggest, "The school or the employment service can do this better; let's give the money to them."

There is often among social workers a tendency to want to "take on" a family rather than a youth; a tendency to approach youth problems too broadly; to overemphasize a psychiatric approach when some sound occupational information would be more useful; to overstress religion; and to a limited extent to use an immature or oversentimental approach.

I have given the criticisms of an outside observer possibly more emphasis than they deserve. However, these should not detract from a full appreciation of the absolutely essential contributions made by social agencies as a link in the community chain. The private agencies render special service impossible in public agencies.

They make demonstrations and do pioneer work of inestimable value. For example, one privately financed agency, Vocational Service for Juniors, is largely responsible for much of the early development of standards of junior placement, of guidance for out-of-school youth, and for realistic training for vocational counselors for in-school or out-of-school duty.

cies.

iem.

ocial

h of

and

uid-

ning

occu-

fany hose

nior

pasic

that

oloy-

ature

ever

n do

take

outh

oach

eful;

ature

more

tract

tions

e pri-

ncies.

Generally, it is suggested that the private agencies' greatest potential contribution to unemployed youth is to do things for them which no governmental or community agencies can do, and in some cases to do these things on a long-term demonstration basis with the avowed intent of transferring responsibility when the public mind and the public budget catch up with the idea.

UNEMPLOYED YOUTH AND THE STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

Every State has a State employment service, to which the United States Employment Service contributes funds and acts as a guardian angel over its personnel and professional standards. In January 1938, three months before this article is published, twenty-two of these States began to pay unemployment compensation benefits and received further funds and expert counsel from the unemployment compensation division of the Social Security Board. Finally, some twenty-nine of these States have had, or are having, demonstrations of junior placement financed by the NYA, which supplies funds for personnel and which acts as technical adviser on junior-placement matters. Several States, as a result of these demonstrations, are financing junior placement themselves. In New York State, Ohio, Michigan, California, and Colorado, the junior-placement program has been paralleled by "junior consultation services" which offer an intensive and highly realistic aid in occupational planning to a limited number of applicants referred by junior-placement counselors, social agencies, and schools. The funds for these services have been provided by NYA and private agencies and service clubs.

Since 1933 we have seen a real renaissance in our State employ-

ment services. They are achieving higher and higher standards of personnel and procedures. Politics, if it appears, is rather definitely crushed. One can safely say that in 1938 there are no more politics in the average State employment service than in the average school system.

There is a gradual recognition of the need for special resources for junior placement in State employment services. In some instances the old "hard-boiled" labor-exchange attitude (an antique hangover) or a desire not to be bothered hold out against a special

division for juniors. This opposition is limited.

The State employment service will very soon be the community center for unemployment compensation. It is now the center that is being increasingly recognized by every one in the community for placement in private employment, by personnel which recognizes just one standard: the applicant's fitness for the job.

These services, with offices in every community, are also the *only* community agency that, for unemployed youth, can provide opportunity for private placement coördinated with unemployment compensation benefits when the youth is eligible for them; and which possess an accurate, up-to-the-minute fund of information on em-

ployment trends and occupational requirements.

Many State employment services do not yet fully realize their unique position as the potential community headquarters for accurate occupational information. A few of them, for example, the Ohio State Employment Service, under the direction of W. T. Doe, have already made the employment office a center for community research and community planning in regard to employment matters. (The Ohio development of this broad concept has mainly been in the Cincinnati Employment Center, formerly directed by Stanley B. Mathewson and now directed by Dr. Lorin Thompson.)

It has been indicated that the schools need a closer integration with actual employment conditions and requirements. They need, to some extent, to rediscover their communities. They also need to discover the State employment service as the one community agency that can provide a broad approach for placement in private industry and which can also provide essential information regarding the occupational needs of the employers in the community.

 \mathbf{f}

CS

ol

es

1-

ie

al

ty

at

or

es

ly

1-

h

n-

ir

u-

ne

e,

ty

t-

n

n-

n

d,

to

It has also been indicated that the private social agency needs to delegate those youth functions which can better be done by some one else. They need to discover the State employment service and to learn how to use it.

The State employment service in turn can obtain valuable data on the individual, usually in summary form, from the schools and the social agencies, in order better to judge the potentialities of youth and properly to orient its occupational information and placement work. In some cases, the State employment service can participate in the operation of a junior consultation service for out-of-school youth, paralleling its junior placement work, if it has the necessary support of schools, private agencies, and the community.

These things are being done, to a greater or less degree, in several cities, usually with some NYA financing and technical assistance. They are pointing the way, overcoming the traditional prejudice of many professional workers against State employment services, and building up channels of interchange of sorely needed information. When community agencies and schools learn really to use the employment service and when the employment services fully recognize their own community significance, the essential link with occupational realities which is needed in our handling of unemployed youth will have been achieved.

There is some question on the part of some school authorities whether they should relinquish junior placement to their State employment service. The NYA selected the State employment services for its own demonstrations of junior placement because it felt that such agencies serve all youth and because they offer an essential link with adult placement as "the youth grows older." Also, the development of unemployment compensation makes it mandatory

for a large proportion of young workers to maintain regular contact with the State employment service.

We are dealing here to some extent with "potentialities" in the development of State employment services which have not yet been fully or uniformly realized. Many of them are faced with greatly increased responsibilities which must be absorbed before their permanent community usefulness in relation to the schools and the private social agencies will be fully realized.

CONCLUSION

The relation of the school, the social agency, and the employment service to unemployed youth requires a greater degree of occupational reality. This is a basic community problem in which all three are inseparably involved and in the solution of which all three require some reorientation, readjustment of viewpoint, and recognition of a mutual interest.

The realist in matters of this type has little faith in attempts at reorganization or clarification unless buttressed by an informed and educated public opinion. The needs and opportunities for unemployed youth probably require much more widespread public support and understanding. A facing of occupational facts and greater dissemination of them by all concerned is therefore indicated with especial emphasis on information for parents.

Practical considerations of democratic control, decentralization, individual differences in viewpoint, freedom for development of new ideas—all suggest that the most effective approach to the present and future needs of unemployed youth can be made by a mutual recognition of the need for carefully assembled occupational data showing community work opportunities and standards, by the evolution of a few simple objectives for a program to prepare youth for these opportunities, and by a realistic and not too detailed coöperative effort on the part of all community agencies to attain these objectives.

COÖPERATION OF THE MONMOUTH COUNTY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL SERVICE AND THE SCHOOLS OF MONMOUTH COUNTY

HARRIET B. COOK

Monmouth County Organization for Social Service

TYPE OF COUNTY

Monmouth County lies midway between north and south Jersey, and has a long coast line. At the central section it narrows to about ten miles in width and extends to within a few miles of Trenton. It has an area of about 460 square miles and a permanent population of about 160,000. Along the shore is a large and shifting population with many cottages and beautiful summer homes; back from the shore in the north and central parts are fertile farm lands. Fringing and south of this are two or three townships and parts of others where there are miles of pines and sand. Here the people are very poor. Most of the little one-room frame schools are now consolidated with the aid of Federal funds.

HOW COÖPERATION BEGAN

A little over twenty-five years ago the present president of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, then a member of the State Charities Aid Association, made a survey of conditions in Monmouth County. The results of this investigation led to the forming of a Monmouth County branch of the State Charities Aid Association, which incorporated in 1918 under the present name, Monmouth County Organization for Social Service. The original board of Directors was made up of interested and influential people including the president of the State Board of Education, resident of this county, and the County superintendent of schools. Naturally, among the first committees formed were those which vitally concerned the welfare of children of school age.

The principles and policies adopted at this early date were these:

1. Not to "build an organization" but to plant one and help it to grow

2. To base all action on knowledge, as complete as possible, of the people and conditions to be dealt with

3. To take the whole social problem and to try, as one united force,

to meet it in a progressive spirit

4. To centralize information and to promote concerted action but, at the same time, leave wide freedom for local initiative

5. Not to mistake rigidity for strength, but to realize that length of life and continuing usefulness depend upon alertness of mind, flexibility, and adaptibility to changing conditions

Realizing that much of the sickness and unemployment resulted from neglected childhood, the logical place to begin seemed to be with the children. A field worker, who had had three years experience with the Vineland Training School, was employed to study maladjusted children in the county, the delinquent children that came before the courts, and the retarded children in the public schools, as well as the neglected children brought to the attention of the organization.

The first step in making such a study was to get all children registered and in school if possible, so that the school might become a social laboratory where the children could be studied physically and mentally and given an education adapted to their needs. An interested individual donated to the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service money to be used as the salary of a woman county attendance supervisor. Later the organization was successful in getting legislation passed creating such an office.

SPECIAL CLASSES

With a large percentage of the children accounted for, a study of the three-to-four-years-retarded children was finished. With the advice of State and county school officials, the field worker was appointed the supervising principal of three rural townships in order to demonstrate the practicability of special instruction for the mentally retarded in rural communities. It then became necessary to establish scholarships for the training of special teachers at Vineland Summer School to encourage those capable of doing this exceptional service in the schools. This fund was provided by interested people through the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service. After a three-year demonstration, the Department of Child Study, as it is known today, was created by additional legislation and financed by public funds through the office of the County Superintendent of Schools. For several years thereafter, however, the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service continued to supplement the supervisor's salary and to furnish secretarial assistance and office space. Today Monmouth County has the distinction of having the largest number of special classes of any rural county -largely due to the fact that the work has been developed as a county unit.

SCHOOL HEALTH WORK

Even in the early days of this organization there were a few school medical inspectors. A County Superintendent, however, made this statement: "Medical inspection without nursing follow-up service is a waste of the doctor's time and is of small good to the child." Again funds were provided to make a survey. This was in 1914 and Miss Anna Stanley, who had been five or six years at the head of the Department of School Nursing at Cleveland and was at that time completing a course in public-health nursing at Teachers College, agreed to give three months to this survey. At the end of one month she was able to convince the Board of Directors of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service that there was a need for more and better health work throughout the county and especially in the rural communities. A public-health nurse was then appointed as a permanent member of the staff of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service.

To initiate school nursing and to demonstrate its value, all the rural and small urban boards of education were approached by a member of the staff of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service and were offered nursing service at the rate of one day for each fifteen children at almost any monetary consideration that gave evidence of interest. In a few very poor townships medical inspection by a doctor was included. A traveling school nurse who, during this demonstration period, served eight or ten such districts was employed. These demonstrations gradually led schools to desire more of the nurse's time. The number of districts were decreased and more nurses added.

To decrease mileage and to avoid duplication of work, the organization adopted the policy of having a qualified public-health nurse do the schoolwork as part of a generalized community public-health-nursing program. The schools paid one dollar per child; the board of health one to two hundred dollars, depending upon the size of the community. Service groups often contributed. The Monmouth County Organization for Social Service subsidized the remainder. When a good lay committee, representative of all activities in the municipality, was formed to interpret the work of the nurse and to encourage support of the program, it was only a few years before communities were financing the local auxiliary to the extent of their financial ability.

The Monmouth County Organization for Social Service realized early that certain rural townships, with low ratables and small, scattered populations, would never be able adequately to finance public-health-nursing service. In 1929, through the instigation of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, a permissive act of the State legislature made it possible for counties and public bodies to appropriate funds to qualified incorporated private agencies for a joint program. As a result, contracts were drawn up by the County of Monmouth whereby a threefold partnership—

¹ See Public Health Laws of New Jersey, 1929, page 259, Chapter 148.

the county of Monmouth, the municipality, and the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service—was inaugurated. Each contributed an equal amount of money. Within the political division the school, board of health, or other local public agencies made up the third. This permitted communities that were small and where ratables were low to receive the same quality of public-health-nursing service as the larger and more prosperous communities. With the various methods of encouraging and subsidizing public-health-nursing service, including school nursing and other health work, sixty public-health nurses are now serving Monmouth County with its 160,000 population. Probably no rural county, as a whole, is more adequately served with school nursing.

The director of public-health nursing of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service was appointed county advisory nurse and the educational supervisor helping teacher for health education on the staff of the County Superintendent of Schools on a part-time basis. The educational opportunities arranged for the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service staff are available also for the staff nurses in organizations fully financing their own work. Through the helping-teacher link-up, there is opportunity for a better articulation of teacher, school nurse, and community health-education work. This has made for a fine quality of service and a fine spirit of coöperation.

MENTAL HYGIENE AND CHILD STUDY

While child study within the school system was being developed, it became obvious that not only the retarded children but other children as well needed further special service. Dr. Thomas W. Salmon, who was then a member of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, was consulted by the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service board. He recommended the first measure attempted be a mobile mental-hygiene clinic. In 1921 the program was inaugurated by a grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Me-

morial fund supplemented by the Commonwealth fund to function in connection with the national program for juvenile delinquency.

At the end of two years, a different program in the same field of mental health and social adjustment was presented to the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial Foundation. This was accepted and the organization was given a generous grant for a demonstration that seemed more closely related to existing community needs.

This demonstration included such activities as training for leadership in parent education, child-study groups, and other preventive work. Among the preventive aspects were habit clinics for parent consultations, adolescent consultation centers, and conference periods for principals and teachers. A first-grade survey and group tests in grades III to VIII were also offered by letter to each school principal in the county. At that early date very little testing had been done and the response was immediate. Only six principals in the county did not ask for the service. The following year 3,316 first-grade children and 435 from grades three to seven were tested and retested. Suggestions were made for individual examinations for those of superior intelligence of 120 or over and likewise for those of inferior intelligence of 75 or below. In 190 cases permission was obtained from parents for an individual psychological study. Regular group conferences regarding individuals studied were held with the psychologist, psychiatrist, school nurse, teacher, and any others who could assist in the carrying out of the recommendations.

Through the educational director and the psychologist, who were on the faculty at Teachers College, credit courses in child study and behavior problems were given for the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service staff, teachers, and interested parents. This led to better lay understanding of the "nature and needs of children."

After a period of demonstration, the detailed type of work carried on under this program was found to be too expensive to be absorbed by local communities. For that reason this organization welcomed the opportunity to coördinate local activities with the State Department of Institutions and Agencies in the field of mental-hygiene work. Regular weekly psychiatric and psychological clinics were arranged through them and have continued through the various health centers of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, available even to the most rural school districts on a countywide basis.

f

ł

e

t

S

That the services of the director of parent-education and child-study groups might continue to be available, three years before the memorial funds were withdrawn the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service arranged with the State university for a demonstration on a State-wide basis and continued the salary of the director. This was so successful that at the end of this period she was made a permament member of the University faculty. Not only the State, therefore, but Monmouth County continued to have the advantage of her advice and assistance on a permanent basis. Parent groups through Parent Teachers' Associations and through play centers continued discussion groups, stimulated by radio talks and printed matter arranged by their former local director.

VISITING TEACHER

Through the initiative of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, Monmouth was fortunate in being one of the first rural counties to have a visiting teacher. The Commonwealth Foundation was sponsoring the visiting-teacher movement. Previous relationships in the mental-hygiene field gave them confidence that the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service was an incorporated group that would interpret and support such a worker in the county. They were glad therefore, to create such a position through the National Education Association. The arrangements were made that the Commonwealth Fund should pay two thirds of her salary and that the remainder be met one third by the Board of Education of Red Bank and two thirds by this organization for work throughout the county under the direction of the County

Superintendent of Schools. At the end of a successful two-year demonstration the visiting teacher was taken over entirely by the Red Bank schools. In the more rural districts which had been so understandingly served by her, philosophies of the visiting-teacher movement are being carried out in a modified way by others in the schools.

OTHER ACTIVITIES

It was not only in those areas that lay directly in the school field that the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service was able to coöperate with the schools but as soon as funds were released from one demonstration the organization was ready to take into consideration the next most pressing need. Among these were recreational centers; play schools for preschool children, with regular observation periods for high-school pupils; scouting; Confidential Social Service Exchange; and health clinics of various kinds. Education of the public regarding needs such as a county tuberculosis sanatorium, a welfare home for indigent aged and chronically ill, and a children's shelter for homeless and incorrigible children pending juvenile-court action was another important community service.

PRESENT SITUATION

Besides those services mentioned in the previous paragraphs, there are now ten well-equipped and staffed health and welfare centers, auxiliaries of Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, scattered about Monmouth County. These are readily available to the rural communities without undue travel.

Each auxiliary functions through representative local committees comprised of community leaders and usually include the supervising principal and one or more members of the local board of education. Here policies affecting the health and welfare of the community are discussed and procedures determined.

The county superintendent of schools is officially a member of the Board of Directors of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service. Other school workers of county-wide interest meet regularly with the Health and Public Relations Committees of the Board of Directors.

ar he

SO

er he

ld

as

d

to

e-

ar

al

1-

is 1,

e.

0

S

f

e

Thirty-eight of the sixty public-health nurses in Monmouth County are doing school nursing. Thirty-three part-time school nurses in a generalized public-health-nursing program and five full-time school nurses are employed through local boards of education in four urban districts. All but five coast resort towns have school-nursing service. All the rural schools are covered. The Monmouth County Organization for Social Service continues to coöperate through partnership with twenty-six of the more rural districts. To the other districts advice and educational opportunities are available when desired. Because of this link-up, there is better understanding between the private and official groups working with the schools.

SUMMARY

1914—County attendance supervision. Organized and financed by the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service; now entirely financed through a budget of the County Superintendent of Schools.

1915—Supervision of child study. Organized by the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service; now on State funds.

1918—Special Classes. Initiated by the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, now thirteen such classes are financed by public monies under the Supervisor of Child Study.

1918—Recreation. With the coöperation of the county superintendent, the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service employed a full-time recreational director for eighteen rural schools. Now supervised play is organized through the local school systems.

1921—School nursing. Organized by the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service. There are now thirty-three generalized school nurses jointly financed under laws of 1929, and five full-time school nurses financed and organized by four urban dis-

tricts. In 1920 two large school districts had one full-time school nurse each; now, forty-three school districts, including all of the rural schools, have nursing service.

1922—Mental-hygiene and parent-education program. Developed through private funds under auspices of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service; now financed by the State Department of Institutions and Agencies.

1923—Visiting teacher. Through the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, Monmouth County was selected by the Commonwealth Fund to be one of the earliest fields for experimentation. One visiting teacher is now financed by Red Bank.

Mrs. Lewis S. Thompson, president of the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, in one of her annual reports writes as follows:

The policy of coördinated activity means growth, both in the county and in the local unit, and reaches up to the State asking for leadership and giving support. It is a growth both at the bottom and at the top and makes for steady progress and common understanding. I believe that any welfare program that is built on both the interest and financial support of the State, county, and local unit is stronger than any of these could build alone. It is not only the fact that coöperation is learned by coöperating, the one and only way, but that these partners share in a joint program to which they each make a definite, distinct, and necessary contribution of service and money, and are therefore held together by natural bonds.

In closing let me say: If the cost to humanity in the wastage of child life is ever to be stopped, and if the cost in dollars to the taxpayer for the institutional care is ever to be lessened, it will be through bringing the problem back to the home and the community from which it came, and asking them to undo their misdeeds and redeem their failures.

HOW THE SOCIAL FORCES OF A COMMUNITY ARE COÖRDINATED TO SERVE CHILDREN

ol

d

ty t-

i-

le

n-

ty

es

ty

ip

p

al

se

y

S-

er

ld

or

es.

JOHN B. DOUGALL

Superintendent of Schools, Summit, N. J.

and

NORA ALICE WAY

Visiting Teacher, Summit, N.J.

The critical economic period which occurred between the years 1930 and 1936 and its consequent social unrest have directed the attention of educators toward a more liberal social philosophy of public education. A new concept of social responsibility is being generally accepted by administrators as well as by classroom teachers. In fact, the new social philosophy has become one of the ideals of education.

During this same period much progress has been made in the completion of carefully planned and well-equipped school buildings, many of them subsidized largely with Federal funds. A more comprehensive and practical curriculum has been prepared which, with improved teaching procedures, has resulted in better educational service for the individual child. There has been a tendency during these changes for many ambitious school administrators to include under extracurricular labels community services which were already well organized and successfully conducted by agencies outside of school control. Some administrators in their desire to promote school efficiency have failed to recognize that the public school is only one of many sources of education which directly affect the knowledge and character as well as influence the social attitudes of youth.

A broader concept of learning presupposes that true education comes from the sum total of all our experiences. These experiences naturally are found in the home, church, school, playground, library, theater, motion pictures, radio, Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, 4-H Clubs, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Y.M.H.A. organizations, and even the playmates of children. All of these agencies may affect youth education and many are found available in well-organized communities. School administrators should realize that any program of public education must give due consideration to these supplemental mediums of education and offer coöperation for a mutual sharing of educational service with them. It is true, however, that in some communities the public school is the best equipped or even the only social agency to meet welfare needs. Our community life has become so involved with human welfare service that public education, willingly or not, is forced to participate in the growth of a common enterprise of social improvement. The school program of the future must plan to capitalize the worth-while values in those agencies that have been mentioned. Some of their real usefulness has been lost because the duplication of service presented a problem for the parent as well as the child. One would assume that the first step in the elimination of the problem of duplication should be a development of a coöperative community program. In such a program each agency shares its service for the ultimate educational, social, and character growth of children who will become its future influential citizens. There are many cities and a few smaller communities where the welfare agencies have subordinated their individual interests and have merged into a coöperative group usually called a coördinating council or council of social agencies. Such organizations have required that each agency define its purposes and outline a program which results in eliminating the duplication of effort and in creating a more efficient community service for youth. Here is a new field where the public school has an opportunity to assume some leadership through its child-guidance department and become identified in the promotion of coöperative group programs.

Summit, New Jersey, is regarded as a fine residential city of approximately sixteen thousand population, located in the Baltusrol

d

d

)-

ıl

n

e

lS

1-

a

e

SS

n

st

a

S

r

e

Hills twenty miles from New York City. It is a community noted for its beautiful homes, good churches, progressive public and private schools, and the large number of persons directly interested in social welfare. The program of public education has been planned to recognize individual differences of pupils, realizing that all are more or less confronted with certain mental, physical, and emotional problems which require personal attention in order that children may find their proper places in life and become useful members of the social group where they live. Some eight years ago the superintendent of schools organized departments of child health and child guidance more effectively to serve these individual differences of pupils and more efficiently to deal with the emotional and delinquent problems through casework. The departments consist of the medical and dental staffs, the school psychologist who evaluates academic achievement by means of tests and measurements, a director of educational and vocational guidance for the junior high school, four high-school guidance counselors, and a trained psychiatric social worker who is called the visiting teacher. Each group has greatly improved the health service and the social welfare for the entire school system. Their work has been so well accepted that many members of the staff are now called upon for leadership and counsel by the welfare organizations in the city. Summit was such a highly organized community, with so many welfare groups all attempting to serve the youth, that it became necessary to make a careful survey of the various agencies to determine where the overlapping of services was most apparent.

The development of a coöperative plan has been slow but apparently each step was accepted before the next was taken. At present, when the whole country is talking coördinating councils, public

opinion might help the process along much faster.

However, the cooperative plan in this community is reported as it actually happened and as it has been experienced by the visiting teacher as she has lived and worked in this high-type community.

These are the steps in the process of organizing cooperative effort:

1. A sketchy survey made in October 1929 revealed some sociological factors, such as percentages of parents of foreign birth or speaking a foreign language in the home; the crowded conditions of certain homes; the percentage of working mothers and the type of work being done. Such factors would influence any community program.

2. Following this, a survey was made by an outside organization and recommendations were made to large community groups with the result that possibilities for organizing existing agencies were

discussed.

3. Finally, a plan was made for full-time welfare workers to meet for luncheon every other week. This group of ten or twelve had its first meeting in October 1930. Four school people comprising the child-guidance department were present—the school nurse, the vocational counselor, the school psychologist, and the visiting teacher. Integration of this group was slow. Each one had been doing his job alone, and the necessity of coördination was not felt by all.

4. The group received the first opportunity to function publicly when its chairman was appointed head of the Mayor's Social Service Committee as a part of the Emergency Relief program in the town. Most of the social workers group were appointed to the new committee along with a number of lay leaders interested in welfare. The first meeting was held December 1, 1932, and before long community conditions were receiving group action. Coöperation was more effective and results were more rapid. It was possible to illustrate by cases that the causes of many difficulties in personality or behavior in youth lay not so much in the youngsters themselves or in the family alone as in the social situation for which lacks in the community itself were responsible.

For instance: Claude, when a lad of thirteen, was referred to the visiting teacher because of failing work and a disagreeable attitude when under correction. He was sullen and occasionally insolent and seemed to delight in making the teacher's life miserable. He bullied smaller children and was generally poor in conduct.

S

Investigation revealed a broken home with unstable parents. Claude had to live with relatives. The street was noisy and the boy was not getting the proper rest. After the family moved, Claude had more sleep and showed some improvement in school, although there was still trouble outside of school hours. Because he was only one of several who were having difficulties, the service clubs were urged to furnish a leader for a boys' club as an experiment in one district. They consented and arrangements were made for this leisure-time activity. Soon Claude was elected president and there was such a great improvement in his whole attitude that there was no further difficulty with him.

5. A Youth Council that aimed at coördinating the activities of young people and at preventing conflicts in clubs, etc., had been formed previous to the Social Service Committee but had been a feeble organization. In the winter of 1933, this was merged with the Committee and brought in representatives of the PTA's and some others not previously connected with the committee. The name was changed to the Social Service Council and continued to function as an active but loosely organized body.

6. In May or June 1933, a committee was named to investigate and determine the interest of local organizations in forming a Council of Social Agencies. The interest was revealed, a constitution was written, and on March 23, 1934, the formal organization meeting took place.

This Council adopted the following objectives:

To promote the social welfare of the City of Summit by

 a) Encouraging coöperation and community planning among the citizens through its civic, benevolent, and welfare organizations

b) Developing teamwork among the various social agencies through coöperative planning and service

c) Creating intelligent public opinion concerning social problems

d) Encouraging social legislation

 e) Promoting high standards of economy and efficiency in all socialwork agencies, individually and collectively

 f) Advising the undertaking of new work, further development or consolidation of existing agencies, or the formation of new agencies

The formation of the Council of Social Agencies resulted in such activities as the following being carried on through its member agencies or other civic groups: a community Christmas, adulteducation program, study of nationality groups, census of aliens, health survey, increase in recreation facilities and staff, survey of organization needs and facilities, nursery school, united campaign of seven member agencies, organization of the Mayor's Youth Welfare Council, study of housing problems, coöperation with the college club in study of child-welfare services, and a study of children's activities now under way.

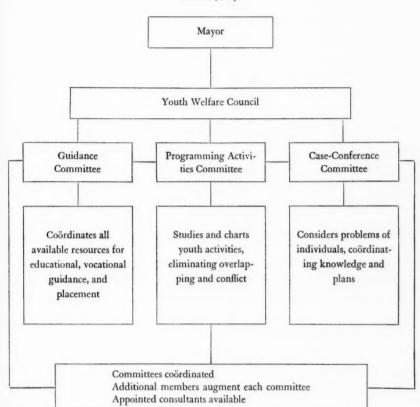
7. The Youth Welfare Council mentioned above was organized in June 1936 by the Mayor as a small group with power to act on needs arising among the youth of the town. (Chart I).

There was an imperative need for intelligent concerted action. The unrest which is partly an aftermath of the depression affected the stability of children as well as their health. Figures gathered before the depression revealed that one in twenty persons spends some time in a mental hospital, not to mention those so affected by neurotic conditions as to be seriously handicapped in working efficiency. How much more, then, does preventive work need to be done now? Since there is such a scarcity of clinics and highly trained workers with psychiatric background, some other means of dealing intelligently with these problems had to be found. The importance of the school in this situation rises sharply, because the teachers are the only professional people seeing all the children of the community every day.

CHART I

YOUTH WELFARE COUNCIL

Summit, N. J.



They, however, have been handicapped by lack of training in mental hygiene in their professional schools. Few have any training in social-casework procedure, especially in interviewing, which is perhaps the major activity that they have in common with the social worker in whose training skill in interviewing is a vital part.

Since the teachers and the social workers are concerned with the

same children and are working in the same general direction—building better citizens for a better society—it is amazing that in many places the two groups have gone their separate ways so long. The fault has probably been on both sides. However, the changing emphasis in education from "book learning" alone to social learnings challenges teachers. With a geniune interest in children and their problems, teachers can get acquainted with social workers who may have much material of value and many helpful suggestions as well.

Social workers, on the other hand, rebuffed by a few teachers with little social viewpoint, have often condemned the schools as a whole, when perhaps only good casework with the educators was indicated. This common ground, the child's development, would seem to be an imperative meeting place for intelligent people, because each is acting upon the child for good or ill and each needs to know what the other is doing and how, working together, each can do a better job for the child. All this seems so obvious, but in practice the relationship is often beclouded by misunderstandings or suspicions among the adults themselves so that the child and his needs are drowned in the gulf which lies between them. How these disasters are being avoided is shown in the following description of the Youth Welfare Council.

This body carries out the philosophy that casework with individual children is only partially effective if the community is not constructively filling the needs of those children outside of school hours. Such a philosophy requires, therefore, not only coöperation of casework agencies, but also of group work and religious agencies especially where these groups are actually doing casework with individuals along with their regular programs. In the small community there are not many caseworking agencies. Coöperation or coördination needs to be with *all* social agencies working with youth, and social casework needs a very broad interpretation. All have as their aim guiding youth into a fuller and richer life. Guid-

ance is a broad term that is too often limited in its meaning. To some it means educational guidance and vocational information in the secondary schools, but of what worth is guidance at that level if there has not been a consistent personal guidance throughout previous years? A recent study made by the American Banking Institute revealed that ninety per cent of those discharged from certain large corporations lost their jobs because of defects in personality such as carelessness or inability to get along with other people and only ten per cent because technically they were unable to do the work. This is a challenge to any group of thinking citizens in school or out. The plans to meet this challenge are shown in the purposes of the three committees appointed by the Youth Welfare Council.

1

S

S

a

s

0

e

.

e

1

n

-

GUIDANCE COMMITTEE

The committee on guidance should include representatives from the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., high school, junior high school, Boy and Girl Scouts, churches, neighborhood house, service clubs, and the college club.

The purpose and program shall be to furnish to young people, and agencies dealing with young people, educational, vocational, social, health, and placement guidance.

In accomplishing this purpose the committee will undertake to utilize the wealth of resources in local personalities, local special agencies, and governmental agencies. Findings on community needs shall be referred to the Council of Social Agencies and to the Mayor's Committee on Social Planning.

PROGRAM-ACTIVITIES COMMITTEE

The Committee on Program Activities should have as members representatives of all local organizations responsible for youth activities, for example: religious, educational, recreational, and social groups.

The purpose of the committee shall be to study and chart all such

activities, making the chart available for general use, listing date, hour, place, nature, and age group, thus eliminating overlap and conflict.

This program, fully carried out, should enable those responsible for the programs to learn where there are lacks or excesses and to adjust and maintain a proper balance of varied activities for individuals.

Through a complete clearance of program activities, it should be possible to evaluate the present programs in relation to the needs of the community as a whole, the various neighborhoods, and the special groups.

CASE CONFERENCE COMMITTEE

The purpose of the Case Conference Committee is to consider the problems of individuals.

Group planning, it is believed, is the key method of effecting some solution of individual problems. The term "problem" should mean all factors affecting negatively the success and attitudes of any

youngster.

This method may be contrary to the tradition that a good parent, a good teacher, a good minister, or a good policeman does his own job and should not need to ask help of others. But the situation in the world as it is today requires adjustments which even the parents of today's children did not have to make. It is not possible to bring children up isolated from the world around them, nor is it possible for any one agency, whether it be the family, the church, or the school, to do a good job of child training alone.

It is necessary for all agencies to work in harmony in order to help the child develop in a wholesome fashion, especially in areas that tend to breed delinquency. In such areas it is vital that all agencies of the community pool their knowledge and their resources in order that the best possible plans shall be made, tried, revamped if necessary, and carried through to a successful conclusion.

Membership consists of a small case committee consisting of those engaged in social casework, educational, recreational, and group work who are already concerned with individual problems; a consulting group from the religious, educational, medical, and legal fields whose knowledge of the individuals or special situations would be valuable in diagnosis or in the formulation of treatment plans; the chairman and secretary of the Youth Welfare Council to be ex officio members of the committee.

0

f

e

e

d

y

t,

n

n

S

e

e

0

S

11

Carrying out the purpose of education to help a person to live wholesomely and effectively in the society in which he finds himself may often require the school to become society's agent. Chart II shows how this occurs in the present setup for youth welfare.

New projects requiring cooperative effort are suggested as needs are revealed. Each year the schools are concerned with the activities of their pupils as to club work; music, dancing, and other lessons; athletics; and work experiences. Here the overorganized child as well as the neglected or lone child is revealed and action that will lead to a better balanced life needs be taken.

For the past two years an inventory of maladjustments has been taken. This reveals certain undesirable traits such as unfriendliness, timidity, daydreaming, lying, stealing, bullying, etc. This early discovery of undesirable tendencies offers the best opportunity for prevention that we have yet discovered.

This year the results from the activity records are being used by the Recreation and Character Building Committee of the Council of Social Agencies to discover those children who seem to be in need of organized activities. The adjustment inventory is another way of reaching the same problems. The Program Activities Committee is making a study of needs from another angle.

The results of organized coördination are better understanding and growth in mutual respect as the work with individuals and their problems progresses.

The meetings are timesaving as the entire group is usually pres-

ent—each member who knows the case under discussion contributes his knowledge, the tentative plan is made, and all know which part of the plan each is to carry out. Until the group plan is tried, it is difficult to realize the time lost in calling various agencies, making appointments and calls one at a time. More than the time element is the information that comes from unexpected sources and the unusual turns which so affect the plans that the outcome could not possibly be foreseen. But perhaps the most effective result is in improved service to individuals because the knowledge of each is augmented by that of others. Of such is the following illustration:

One of the problems confronting the Case Conference Committee was that of an "epidemic" of stealing building materials and selling scraps to junkmen. What to do about the group of boys involved required further study before a decision could be made.

Ju

Reci

Eler

Ci

Yo

Investigation by those close to the boys revealed an interesting situation. Some workmen gave rather valuable material to children, and some adults were taking materials away. A junkman was buying material directly from the children, which was definitely against the law. On the other hand, the boys wanted some spending money. The playground activities were not filling their time full enough. If, however, these boys were sent to court they would be punished for the adults who were chiefly to blame.

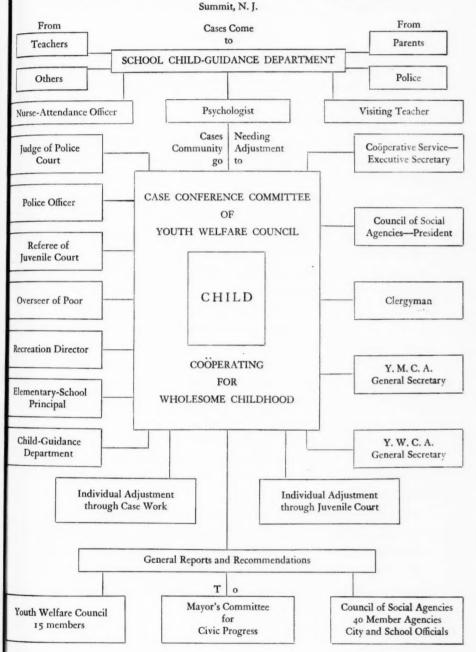
The boys were divided among the various members of the committee who knew the families. These members began to work with the families of the boys to overcome the difficulty. As a result the parents began to realize their responsibilities in the situation. The junkman and certain workmen were warned by the police.

Definite plans with and for the children themselves resulted in more constructive activities and no repetition of the offenses.

Thus, the child's need for better understanding is not neglected, nor is the opportunity to render justice lost in this complete picturing of the child's life. Because of a better understanding of social casework, teachers try to meet an emergency in the child's life until

CHART II

PLAN OF COÖRDINATION FOR WELFARE OF THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD



the social worker who may be in charge can handle the situation more completely but continue to coöperate with any new plan.

CONCLUSION

Real cooperation is possible when there is willingness to become acquainted in a friendly fashion. Thus may some of the difference in techniques be overcome in time.

On the one hand, the teacher has traditionally desired to uphold high standards of conduct and achievement which must be met within the limits of a report period or a school year. These behaviors and achievements must usually be reported in detail to parents and justified to a supervisor.

On the other hand, the social worker sees the whole family setting and wonders how the teacher can expect perfection in conduct from such an environment and why the teacher thinks results can come so quickly when the best the social worker can do with patience and casework techniques is to help human beings to progress at their own rate, which is sometimes exceedingly slow.

Through patience, tolerance, and a desire to serve children better there can and will develop in time a respect for the different understandings each can contribute. From the faith of a few will evolve new techniques of coöperation by contribution rather than the techniques of selfish competition for which there is no rightful place when the lives of children are at stake.

Administrators, too, would do well to learn from the field of social work that the best learning comes from living through a problem "the together way" and that new ideas and plans can neither be hurried nor forced.

Tolerance, patience, kindliness, willingness to overcome the fears that often block progress, and an abiding faith in the possibilities of human beings—these are the qualities that operate in the making of treatment plans for happier children. Thus may these plans finally dovetail until a genuine integration takes place.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN'S PLACE IN THE COMMUNITY

n

e

e

d

t

d

t

n

h

)-

r

e

e

f

1

f

ETHEL M. HERRON

Librarian, Essex County Boys' Vocational School

In recent months the subject of the place of books in the guidance of youth has come to be discussed with great frequency among groups of adults: educators, librarians, and members of other social agencies who are interested in the many problems confronting young people.

The library has always been an agency where centralization of many community interests has taken place. Today librarians in every field of public- and school-library service realize the necessity for coördinating all social agencies so that wider and more vital activities may be included in its program. Formerly librarians were concerned with knowing books and making them available; today this function is still urgent, but with a changed world in which insurgent youth flocks to its doors, every member of the profession is concerned with knowing more about individuals.

The problem which faces the librarian is that which concerns the social workers, the public-health officers, attendance and probation attendants, parents, and juvenile court officials, to mention only a few of the agencies whose efforts are spent in serving and helping young people. The approach to an understanding of the problems of youth must be scientific and specific. The guidance of the young person who manifests overt or undesirable social behavior should be as varied and specific as the causes. Librarians believe, and devote their lives to carrying out the dictum, that the right book given to the right person at the right time is an untold force for good; but they shall continue to labor in their own lost world unless help is forthcoming from those who not only believe in the efficacy of right reading guidance, but understand all the many causes of misbehavior.

Causes of maladjustment are numerous and any individual is too complex for any single agency to classify, but all working together may be able to adjust a child to the point where good reading may become an effective remedial measure for behavior problems. The use of the proper books for this function should not be substituted for anything that a health program should rectify or a mental-hygiene clinic treat, but it is one means which may be used for preventive work.

School librarians are perhaps in a better position to help carry out a program of reading guidance with definite preventive possibilities than librarians in other fields, since they are associated with large groups of young people over an extended period of time. When we consider that children spend eight years in elementary schools, associating daily with school teachers and librarians, and that many of these same youths are later associated with us for two or more years of secondary education, it is astonishing to realize the lack of influence for good which any of us seems to exert in any vital way over the habits and lives of these same individuals. Where do we fail?

Do we fail because a librarian discovers an adolescent boy or girl reading salacious literature, but knows nothing of the home environment or recreational opportunities of the child outside of school? Is this failure followed by a more pertinent one, that of not knowing where to find the right social agency which could prevent adults from selling that kind of literature in any known neighborhood?

Do we fail because the school librarian, confined to duties within the four walls of her own library, fails to contact the proper agency of help when a boy or girl is found stealing or destroying books?

These are typical examples of misbehavior cases which every school librarian encounters in schools of every kind and grade in any city or town in our country. They are not confined to schools for boys or for girls, or to schools in any special environment, or schools of any particular grade of teaching: they are simple, univer-

sal misbehavior patterns encountered most frequently in school libraries.

0

d

-

lt

e

)f

S

1-

r

1

f

t

t

-

n

y

n

S

We know that we do fail in our efforts to prevent such behavior because it is known that America has the highest rate of juvenile delinquency of any country in the world. At the present time we need a new program in school libraries to help us prevent such delinquencies.

Too often cases come to our attention after a boy or girl is beyond the jurisdiction of the school or has appeared in juvenile court.

The vocational schools are perhaps one of the most forceful agencies today in this program of preventive work in the community. Many social agencies find opportunities for coöperation and helpful understanding in the vocational school program.

All school librarians could do more, I believe, to integrate the valuable work of proper reading guidance with the program of other social agencies if a more thorough knowledge of existing agencies in every community could be obtained and a plan made to coördinate such agencies.

Should school librarians take the initiative in forming "community councils" or round-table groups composed of member representatives from all community agencies and extend the library and its resources more into the homes, churches, and recreational centers that in any way touch the lives of the school pupils?

Should library schools inaugurate a seminar at which representatives from every field of social service could acquaint future librarians with the work of social groups, and where librarians could make known their plans and resources for coöperating with all the social agencies in the community?

Unless some such suggestion is put into practical use all the lists of books for juvenile courts and all the divided efforts of librarians and social agencies will remain only half measures for solving the problems of youth in this complex world.

WHY NOT FINISH THE SCHOOL JOB?

M. J. FLETCHER

Formerly Superintendent of Schools, Jamestown, N.Y.

On a trip to Florida some time ago I met a young salesman. He was evidently well educated and expressed interesting views on various subjects. From what he told me I inferred that he held a rather important position for a man of his years. Desirous of getting his reaction on the unemployment situation among young people I asked him what he thought the cause and the cure.

To my surprise he replied that he did not think there was any lack of jobs. The trouble, he said, is with the young people themselves. The rising standard of education for all boys and girls and the vocational-guidance programs now common in the schools make young people overparticular as to the kinds of work they are willing to do. In other words, vocational tastes have risen more rapidly than the supply of professional, skilled, or even semiskilled occupations which attract young people. And so it is necessary, as this young man thought, that the students in our schools be taught to realize that for a time at least after they leave school they must be willing to do almost any kind of work that may come along.

If the salesman's contention is true, and if the other contention so often heard—that the great advance in the invention and improvement of labor-saving machinery is constantly decreasing the number of jobs available—is also true, then the young people as they come from our junior and senior high schools are the victims of two forces, or conditions, each of which tends to limit their opportunities in life.

The problem is made still more acute by the fact that overcrowding of the higher professions is leading university administrators to raise admission requirements with the deliberate purpose of reducing the number who may study for professional degrees. This applies more and more, also, to normal schools and colleges. In this

way, and by maintaining placement bureaus, colleges and professional schools protect their graduates and to a certain extent at least assure them a fair chance in the race of life. On the contrary, the multitudes who trail along, dropping out of school here and there from the junior high to the middle college years, must meet the rough and tumble competition of the open labor market which as a rule is not held to any very strict account for its dealings with those who have only their labor to sell. While this general statement needs to be qualified somewhat, as we shall see, yet in the main it is true, as I believe will be generally admitted.

Volumes have been written regarding the causes of widespread unemployment—which begins to look like a permanent problem of giant proportions—and the many remedies proposed to meet the situation. It is not the purpose of this paper to defend or refute any of the arguments or suggestions presented in this nation-wide discussion. My purpose is simply to raise the question which forms the subject of this paper—Why not finish the school job?

During many years of service in the field of education, as teacher of the social studies, principal of high schools, and superintendent of schools, I heard and read many criticisms of the public schools, some fair and constructive, many unreasonable and foolish. Looking back over those years it seems to me the most important criticism that holds against the public schools and others of like grade—a criticism that has been seldom if ever adequately presented—is that the schools do not finish their job. That is, they do nothing, as a rule, to help the student make the sudden and difficult adjustment when he drops school to take up work and make his own way; and never, in view of social and economic conditions, does the boy or girl stand more in need of wise counsel and assistance.

Now for some qualifying statements. To begin with, the criticism in question applies chiefly to cities. In rural regions, for reasons clearly evident, the suggestions here presented have less application.

It is true, too, that some effort, particularly on the part of high

schools, has been made for many years past to secure positions for students leaving school. This effort has been chiefly to place those students who have taken commercial or industrial courses and are, therefore, prepared for the better positions.

It must be conceded also that in years gone by when commercial and industrial conditions were much simpler and the unemployment problem less acute young people leaving school were in less

need of follow-up assistance.

Nor, in this connection, should the part-time school established in a number of the States be left out of account. The part-time school serves two purposes in this discussion: It shows that both educational and legislative authorities have recognized the need of some follow-up attention in the case of certain groups of students; and it has helped a good many boys and girls to find themselves and get established when they came to face the necessity of earning a living.

While we shall give full credit for all that has been done as outlined above, it is true that few if any communities in the United States have set up an adequate organization for proper assistance

and guidance of its beginning wage earners.

With these qualifying statements out of the way, we may go on with the main argument: that both our young people and the community at large might greatly benefit if the schools would extend their help and their influence beyond the student's departure from classroom and study hall—that is, if the schools would finish their job.

This is not a proposition to add something entirely new to our already overcomplex community life, but rather to use more effectively the resources of our most firmly established and most truly American institution, the public schools. Any adequate presentation of the subject would carry this discussion beyond prescribed limits. A brief statement of the principles involved must suffice.

1. Each community needs to work out for itself a philosophy of its economic life.

In years gone by the American people have pretty well established their civil, political, religious, and educational rights. These are recognized in constitutional and statute law. Not so in the economic field. We are now engaged in a bitter struggle to determine and establish our economic rights as citizens. It is necessary, as this conflict of ideas progresses, that communities shall also work out for themselves the principles which are to guide their economic life, lest they wake up some day to find that through their eagerness to receive aid from State and Federal authorities they have surrendered the right to manage their own affairs. During the great depression, communities have sought and accepted, apparently with little thought of the ultimate consequences, more and more supervision of their local affairs by State and Federal authorities. Local selfgovernment to the fullest extent possible—even at some loss of efficiency—is that "vital principle" for which Jefferson contended in the early days of our Republic, and to which we owe our political capacity as a self-governing people.

It may be said, too, with little room for argument that American communities have been more negligent in the matter of any organized effort to study and understand their economic needs and opportunities as applied to their people as a whole than in any other important field of united endeavors. It seems a truism that all that is humanly possible should be done by the community to take care of its own. Whatever tends to make a stable, intelligent, contented citizenship is of great importance; and there is ample reason for thinking that the schools in coöperation with other agencies could greatly further this object by extending sympathetic counsel and assistance to many of our youthful wage earners for a period of time—perhaps from one to three years—after they leave school.

2. Young people as they come from the schools represent a great financial investment of both the State and local government. For citizens to pay hard-earned dollars in taxes to educate our youth and then permit many of them to retrograde and become a social

menace rather than a help to the community, all for lack of some assistance and advice as they enter the wage-earning field, seems a shortsighted policy. The sum total of good citizenship will be none too great if every youngster possible is kept on the right track.

3. Rugged individualism is good for those who can take it; and we may well cherish the principle as an important factor in our democracy. However, failure to recognize that the race of life under our American system is a handicap contest and should be conducted with a view to giving those who are "born short" a fair chance to be successful in the use of such talents as they have is the cause of

much of our present grief.

Who has not heard the successful, prosperous man say again and again, in substance, that he made his own way and every other man could do the same if he would make an honest effort? Our young salesman above quoted leaned toward the same argument. However, nothing is plainer than that such reasoning is twisted. This young man did not need any help; he could make his own way. The same is true, perhaps, of a majority of our American youth; but there are many, very many, who need some initial help and watchful attention for a while to fit them into the scheme of things and to give them confidence that they can look out for themselves.

4. New conditions require new methods. The CCC, the NYA, the thousands of youth who have "taken to the road" the last few years for lack of work in the home town—these together with rapidly changing conditions in industry and business would seem to make it imperative that every community of even small commercial and industrial interests should make a well-organized effort to meet the needs of young people whose preparation for a job has led them into a blind alley.

5. No other agency is so well equipped to take the lead in this matter as the schools. With a daily record over a period of years covering the student's abilities, aptitudes, character, and achieve-

ments, the school is in the logical position to bring prospective employer and applicant together.

6. If the above briefly presented contentions are valid, they lead to the logical conclusion that school authorities should seek the assistance of various agencies in the community in forming what we might call an economic or employment council to study the entire employment situation as it affects beginning wage earners.

In such an organization would be represented the schools, employers, and various civic and social groups. It would stand as a community-wide effort to establish beginning wage earners in the commercial and industrial life of their city, emphasizing the obligations resting upon the community to look after the economic welfare of its young people.

Plans and details of organization would differ for different communities, though the general features and purposes would be practically the same for all. Not only would such an organization under the management of a competent employed director be of benefit to employers and beginning wage earners alike, but it would furnish the school authorities with much desirable information on which to base their courses of study to meet the clerical, commercial, and industrial needs of the community.

It is easy for one to theorize on such matters and to allow his imagination to lead him beyond the reasonable and the practical; but present distressing unemployment conditions would seem to warrant a determined effort on the part of the schools to carry their work and their influence a little further in behalf of the beginning wage earners as they leave the schools.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology.

SOCIAL ATTITUDES AND INFORMATION OF AMERICAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

GEORGE W. HARTMANN

Teachers College, Columbia University

This inquiry is an extension of the survey findings on secondary teachers reported in chapter eight of *The Teacher and Society*. It grew out of the expressed interest of many specialists in elementary education in seeing how "grade-school" teachers compared with high-school instructors in their knowledge of contemporary civilization and their orientation thereto.

Consequently, much the same measure had to be applied to both populations. Thirty-two new attitude statements, the dropping of the "Utopia" section, and a dozen or so more "personal data" items for testing possible correlates of the major variable studied were the chief differences in the total content of the questionnaire used by the elementary teachers as contrasted with that taken by their colleagues in the high schools. The new attitude items were validated by the method previously employed; *i.e.*, 90 per cent or more of a criterion group of eminent "liberals" had to agree in their answers to these propositions before the prevailing response could be taken as the "key" with which to score other papers.

Twenty thousand copies were distributed at "random" to school systems in every State of the Union; ten thousand were returned, giving a response ratio of almost exactly 50 per cent. About half the blanks went to communities of less than 5,000 population. Different geographical areas of each State were sampled in proportion to the teaching population. All replies were anonymous and every blank was returned in a

¹ First Yearbook of The John Dewey Society for the Study of Education and Culture.

plain sealed envelope. Since it took the average respondent slightly more than an hour to complete the blank it is clear that a high degree of "personal participation" was secured. All tests were taken individually; *i.e.*, none were administered in group fashion, although the instructions were so communicated.

The basic hypothesis of the study was that the "progressive" teacher is characterized by a complex of desirable social and personal attributes, prominent among which are superior factual information about public issues and greater readiness to accept the full behavior-implications of democracy in its social, political, and economic aspects. This "liberalism" was also assumed to be positively associated with higher salary income, longer professional training, wider participation in community enterprises, and preference for Socialist or Democratic political creeds rather than Republican inclinations. Correlational analyses and "difference" techniques have been used to check this view.

One important question was answered by this survey, viz.: Are elementary-school teachers more or less liberal than high-school instructors? Selection and other factors would argue for their greater conservatism, but the fact that progressive techniques have been more widely adopted on the elementary level seems evidence against this. The test results on both attitude and information favor the secondary teachers. The detailed graphic profiles for the two groups show the elementary curve slightly but consistently below the secondary. Where there are differences in favor of the elementary they seem to result from the fact that the elementary measure was given in 1937 while the secondary survey was made in 1936, during which interval certain issues, referred to in the test, were more publicized.

The distribution of opinion on the thirty-two new attitude propositions (for which no comparisons can be made) is given below. "A" means that liberals agree with the proposition; "D" that they disagree.

Per cent marked A	Per cent marked D	Per cent omitted	Key	
55	35	10	A	105. Were I a Spaniard, I should be an active supporter of the Loyalist government during the present civil war in Spain.
91	8	Ι	D	106. There is a personal God or Divine Being who created this world.
92	6	2	A	107. The "progressive-education" movement has contributed greatly to the improvement of the curricular content and teaching procedures of our schools.
83	14	3	D	108. Every human being has an immortal soul that continues to live a separate existence after the body disintegrates.
11	88	I	D	109.Married women teachers are undesirable members of a school staff.
40	56	4	A	110. The human race evolved from other forms of life during the millions of years that this earth has existed, and is definitely related to other animals, particularly the anthropoid apes.
9	89	2	A	thinker like Socrates and Confucius, but it was an unfortunate historical outcome that he came to be worshipped as the Son of God.
60	38	2	D	112. The sitdown type of strike is impossible to justify under any circumstances.
36	63	1	A	113. Capital punishment should be abolished as an outmoded and useless way of treating criminal behavior.
25	74	I	D	114.The American Negro today has all the educational opportunity he deserves.
2	97	I	D	115. The growing use of "current events" references in all school subjects is to be condemned.
92	7	I	A	116.The increasing emphasis upon "social prob- lems" in general education is a gratifying sign.

Per cent marked A	Per cent marked D	Per cent omitted	Key	
90	7	3	A	117.It is a commendable human effort to try to bring about peace through a world state or some international federation of cooperating com- monwealths.
40	57	3	D	118.In voting it is always preferable to support the "lesser of two evils" if the candidate whom one really desires has no objective probability of winning.
84	14	2	D	119. Social changes should always be made by grad- ual evolutionary means and never by rapid rev- olutionary reorganization.
II	88	1	D	120. The "activity" program of instruction has done more harm than good to sound educational ideals.
97	I	2	A	classes of citizens and not of one class alone, whether that favored class be a small group at the top or a large mass at the bottom of the social scale.
70	28	2	A	122. The highest duty of the educator is to promote creative experiences.
98	I	I	A	of encouragement should be guaranteed to every school child.
40	51	9	D	124. The Committee on Industrial Organization has done less to advance the welfare of the American working class than the regular officials of the American Federation of Labor.
65	34	I	A	125. School marks should be abolished with all the other paraphernalia of an antiquated, competitive, and artificial educational machine.
55	40	5	D	126.Any one who opposes the practice of "homogeneous grouping" is willfully disregarding the best scientific evidence in its support.

510			1 ne	Journal of Laucational Sociology
Per cent marked A	Per cent marked D	Per cent omitted	Key	
69	30	1	D	127.Repeated drills on fundamentals should be much more widely used than is now the case.
7	88	5	A	128.An immediate replacement of capitalism by state socialism would benefit the inhabitants of this country.
98	I	I	A	129. The elementary school should be an integral part of community life.
4	95	I	D	130.Guidance of children of elementary-school age can be performed adequately without a knowledge of the forces affecting the child out of school.
98	I	I	A	131.Elementary schools should be organized to fit the needs of children for whom they are intended.
97	2	I	A	132.A teacher of elementary grades should maintain a democratic relationship with the pupils.
40	58	2	D	133.A minor aim in character education in the ele- mentary school is the development of children's ability to coöperate.
96	3	I	A	134.A teacher should be absolutely impartial in dealing with all children, regardless of their race, creed, economic status, or nationality.
4	95	Ι	D	135. Teachers of elementary-school children have little need for a knowledge of socio-economic problems in dealing with their pupils.
7	92	1	D	136.An elementary-school teacher must be a dictator with pupils from 5 to 14 years of age.

BOOK REVIEWS

This New America, edited by Alfred C. Oliver, Jr., and Harold M. Dudley, with forewords by President Franklin D. Roosevelt and others. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1937, 188 pages.

This little book is no sentimental tirade for in it is presented a happy balance of what authorities and experts know of the purposes, program, and achievements of the Civilian Conservation Corps and what the youths themselves, for much of the material was written by them, think of this plan which offered them new hope.

Approximately two million jobless and disillusioned youths have seen service in the CCC, and from their own comments show the effects of a program which included employment, education, and facilities for

orderly living.

This New America is an inspiring and interesting historical document which points to the contribution which the CCC has made in the conservation of the greatest natural resource of our nation—its youth. In achieving this fundamental objective the youths of the CCC also rendered valuable service to the country, saving and replanting forest lands, fighting forest fires and floods, and engaging in a vast program of soil conservation.

Liberty vs. Equality, by WILLIAM F. RUSSELL. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, 173 pages.

This very readable little volume is an earnest appeal for the middle course between the two irreconcilable tenants of our Democracy. Education is the means by which the author hopes to resolve the dilemma. Considering the extent and scope of the literature and the necessity of redirecting it to less than a hundred pages, the author has made an excellent summary of the growth of these two concepts through the American sources and their origins in England and France. After tracing the dominance of liberty in the early formulation of our government, he shows the growing importance of equality, with the public school, the focal point of the controversy, emerging triumphant.

With an abounding, an almost blind faith in the efficacy of the public school, the author draws a Utopian picture of a land in which both liberty and equality are achieved and concludes that "the passport to this happy land is a liberal education." Unfortunately, however, the author does not indicate the means by which vested interests may be barred from the public schools, nor the agencies through which teachers may acquire the superhuman wisdom to reconcile in practice two concepts reconcilable only in the Utopian web of social theory.

BOOKS RECEIVED

How to Write a Movie, by ARTHUR L. GALE. New York: Brick Row Book Shop, Incorporated.

Kit Brandon, by Sherwood Anderson. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Ku Klux Klan in Pennsylvania, by Emerson H. Loucks. New York: Telegraph Press.

Let's Stay Married, by Perry Laurence Rohrer. New York: Greenberg, Publisher.

Mexico: A Revolution by Education, by George I. Sanchez. New York: Viking Press.

Mitla: Town of the Souls, by Elsie Clews Parsons. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Movie Parade, 1913–1936, by PAUL ROTHA. New York: Studio Publications, Incorporated.

National Conference of Social Work, 1936. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Negro in the Philadelphia Press, by George Eaton Simpson. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

No Date Has Been Set for the Wedding, by JANET FOWLER NELSON. Education for Marriage Series. New York: The Womans Press.

Nursery School and Parent Education in Soviet Russia, by Vera Fediaevsky and Patty Smith Hill. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company.

Nursing as a Profession, by Esther Lucile Brown. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Outline of Modern History, Volumes I and II, by EDWARD MEAD EARLE and JOHN H. WUORINEN. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Pacific Area and Its Problems, edited by Donald R. Nugent and Reg-INALD Bell. New York: American Council Institute of Pacific Relations.